

*SIGNIFICANCE OF LAYER
DEFLECTION MEASUREMENTS*

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*PURDUE UNIVERSITY
LAFAYETTE INDIANA*

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Technical Paper

SIGNIFICANCE OF LAYER DEFLECTION MEASUREMENTS

TO: K. B. Woods, Director
Joint Highway Research Project

February 14, 1962

FROM: H. L. Michael, Associate Director
Joint Highway Research Project

File: 6-20-3
Project: C-36-52C

The attached paper, "Significance of Layer Deflection Measurements" authored by Messrs. R. D. Walker and E. J. Yoder of our staff and Robert Lowry and W. T. Spencer of the Indiana State Highway Commission, was presented at the last Annual Meeting of the Highway Research Board.

The paper includes material previously presented to the Board as progress reports on project C-36-52C and summarizes much of the work performed on deflections on the U. S. 31 Test Road.

The paper is presented to the Board for approval of submission to the Highway Research Board for publication.

Respectfully submitted,

Harold L. Michael
Harold L. Michael, Secretary

HLM:lmc

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Technical Paper

SIGNIFICANCE OF LAYER DEFLECTION MEASUREMENTS

by

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Joint Highway Research Project

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Purdue University
Lafayette, Indiana

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SYNOPSIS

An understanding of pavement behavior is essential to the development of an effective method of pavement design. To this end, a system for evaluating the structural performance of existing pavements is required. One system of evaluation and its effectiveness is described in this paper.

Data obtained from a test road located on U. S. 31 near Columbus, Indiana, were used to develop the evaluation methods. Procedures such as the analysis of existing crack patterns and wheel track rutting and their relationships to subgrade soil type were examined. Total surface deflections under load, measured with a Benkelman beam, were analyzed in an attempt to establish a relationship between deflection and cracking of the pavement surface.

Failure to establish total deflection as an indicator of the pavement behavior led to the development of a method using the Benkelman beam to measure deflections of the individual layers of the pavement structure. Four inch holes were drilled to the interface of the different layers of the pavement, and the holes were cased with pipe. Steel rods were referenced at the bottom of each hole, extending upward to near the top of the pavement. Measurements were made under rear axle loads of 12,000, 18,000, 22,000 and 27,000 pounds.

Relative modulus values using layer deflections were calculated to compare the relative deflection of one pavement layer with another. Theoretical stress distribution was used as a basis of the calculations.

The important conclusions reached by this study were that total deflections were ineffective in establishing the cause of the flexible pavement cracking and that knowledge of the individual layer deflections was required in order to evaluate the pavement fully.

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INTRODUCTION

The amount a flexible pavement deflects under load indicates, in part, its adequacy insofar as structural capacity is concerned. Repeated deflection may cause the pavement to crack and distort as a result of (1) fatigue, (2) excessive bending stresses, (3) accumulated plastic deformation and other factors.

The deflection of a flexible pavement is partly elastic in character, but it is also made up of plastic strains. Elastic strains are regained upon removal of an applied load whereas plastic strains are not. Thus, the accumulation of these non-recoverable plastic strains with repeated applications of load can result in distortion of the paving surface.

It must be recognized at the outset that performance of a flexible pavement is influenced by many factors. These include gross load, tire pressure, repetition of load, thickness and quality of the various pavement components, and the elastic-plastic properties of the pavement components (particularly the subgrade soil). Pavement failure may result from excessive shear stresses, vertical deflection, or a combination of these.

Several methods of flexible pavement design are based upon limiting deflection criteria. These include procedures adopted by the Kansas State Highway Department,

and the Navy Department. Both of these methods of design are predicted in part upon theoretical considerations that relate pavement stresses and deflections to the applied load. Certain simplifying assumptions are made regarding the shape of the tire imprint upon the pavement surface, the relationship between tire pressure and contact pressure and homogeneity and isotropy of the structural system.

Many engineers use deflection measurements to evaluate the adequacy of existing pavements. The literature contains numerous references to deflection measurements, including the work done on the WASHO and AASHO Road Tests. Deflection measurements are but one tool that can be used by the researcher to formulate concepts regarding the behavior of flexible and rigid pavements. Deflection measurements are subject to many limitations and therefore must be considered to be a means towards an end rather than an end within themselves.

The primary purpose of determining the deflection of an existing pavement, insofar as structural adequacy is concerned, is to obtain basic data, either by inference or direct measurement, relative to the stress-strain properties of the pavement materials. Mere measurement of gross deflection at the pavement surface may not yield the desired results. Such factors as pavement layer deflection, radius of bending and the visco-elastic properties of the pavement components must also be considered.

To be of maximum benefit to the engineer, deflection measurements must be planned so that a large amount of information is obtained without resorting to elaborate field installations. This is true inasmuch as the time required to install deflection gauges in pavements is great, which in turn limits the number of measurements that can be obtained.

Surface deflection is made up of cumulative deflections of all the pavement components including the subgrade. Also, for the usual case a large portion of the deflection occurs in the subgrade. It is to be noted that the pavement may tend to "heave" both between and outside the dual wheels.

As depth increases, the profile of bending changes from that found immediately under the wheels and is saucer shaped. Surface deflection results from an accumulation of strains from the surface downward; the distance a particle moves when a load is applied at the surface decreases with depth.

It appears that measurement of surface deflection alone may be misleading in some cases unless depth of the layer contributing the largest portion of the deflection is known. As a rule, if the major portion of the deflection is in the subgrade, large radii of curvature occur whereas small radii result if the deflection occurs in the upper layers of the pavement. Since tensile stress varies inversely with radii of curvature of the deflected surface it is apparent that knowledge of depth of the deflected layer is important.

A series of deflection measurements were made on the U. S. 31 Test Road near Columbus, Indiana. The purpose of making these measurements was to determine the significance of layer deflection and in particular to ascertain whether correlations could be established between total deflection and pavement condition and between layer deflection and pavement condition. A large number of surface deflections were determined with the Benkelman Beam. Layer deflections (i.e. top of base, subbase and subgrade) were made at selected locations. Comparisons were made among surface rutting, cracking, surface deflection and layer deflections.

The test pavements offered an excellent opportunity to study the comparisons listed above because the pavement was constructed under closely controlled construction conditions. An intensive testing program was carried out during the planning and construction phases. Detailed information was available regarding soil conditions, construction problems, strength properties of all pavement components and perhaps most important, detailed information on the pavements performance was available.

Design and Construction of Test Pavement, US 31

The flexible pavement design was based upon a combination of the Corps of Engineers CBR and the Group Index methods. Subgrade types ranged from A-1-a sands and gravels to plastic A-6 clays (AASHO soil classification). The basic design of the pavement structure was as follows:

- 1 inch - asphaltic concrete surface course
- 1½ inches - asphaltic concrete binder course
- 2½ inches - asphaltic concrete base course
- 8 inches - waterbound macadam base course
- 5 inches (inside edge) to 8 inches (outside edge) - open-graded
drained granular subbase course

The subgrade, after compaction to 100 percent of the maximum standard AASHO value, received at least two coverages of a heavy pneumatic roller (20-35 tons gross load and 50-70 psi tire pressure).

The subbase, which was open-graded and had an average of 2.8 percent fines passing the No. 200 mesh sieve, was compacted with a multiple shoe vibrator to 100 percent of maximum standard AASHO density. Since the subbase lacked cohesion, the heavy pneumatic compactor could not be used. The multiple shoe vibrator was not

employed until the top $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches were mixed with 70 pounds per square yard of limestone screenings.

Crushed stone was used in the construction of the waterbound macadam base course. Each layer was compacted with a multiple shoe vibrator and a heavy pneumatic roller. Two complete coverages were made with the heavy pneumatic roller loaded to a gross weight of 35 to 50 tons, producing contact pressures of approximately 70 to 85 psi.

A 60-70 penetration asphalt was used in all three bituminous concrete layers, 4.5, 5, and 6 percent for the base, binder, and surface courses respectively. All pavement was placed during the 1953 construction season. The final section was opened to traffic December 11, 1953.

Observance of Cracking and Rutting

Early in 1957, longitudinal cracking began to appear at several locations of the flexible pavement. The cracking generally occurred in both the outer and inner wheel tracks. Where the cracking was severe, some transverse cracking was apparent. Examples of the cracking are illustrated in Figure 1. Wheel track rutting was observed at the same time as the cracking. In general the rutting did not exceed 0.5 inches.



FIG. 1
EXAMPLES OF CRACKING

CRACKING, RUTTING, AND SURFACE DEFLECTION STUDY

Initial studies of the test pavement included an analysis of the extent of cracking, rutting, and measurement of surface deflection.

Cracking and Soil Type

In Table 1 are tabulated the linear feet of cracks per station (100 feet) for the four basic soil types found under the flexible pavement. All types of cracks are included in this tabulation except those which seemed to delineate the pavement centerline giving the appearance of a plane of weakness or a "cold joint."

Table 1. Relationship Between Cracking and Soil Type,
January-February 1960

Soil Type	Number of Stations	Linear Ft. of Cracks	Average Linear Ft. of Cracks per Station
A-1	39	4,814	123
A-2	53	5,863	111
A-4	177	23,901	135
<u>A-6</u>	<u>109</u>	<u>11,138</u>	<u>102</u>
All	378	45,716	121

Table 1 shows that more cracks occurred in the pavement built over the A-4 subgrade than pavement built on the other subgrade types. Also shown is that fewer cracks have resulted in pavement built on A-6 subgrades.

Other crack data not presented here have shown that more cracks have occurred in the traffic lane than in the passing lane, and that cracking is not directly related to pavement surface thickness. Also, observation has shown that the cracking has progressed since first appearing.

Surface Deflection Study

During the first week of June 1959 and the second week of May 1960, Benkelman Beam deflection measurements were made at the test road site.

Deflection measurements were made at 48 carefully selected locations. Thirty-two of these locations fit into a pattern of variables illustrated in Figure 2. The variables selected were bituminous pavement surface thickness, crack frequency, lane, and soil type. In general, a pavement showing high crack frequency had 80 or more lineal feet of cracks per station. A section of pavement showing 25 or less lineal feet of cracking was classified as having low crack frequency. The nominal bituminous pavement thickness was 5 inches and this was used as the demarcation line for the surface thickness variable. The sites were also selected on the basis of soil type.

Deflections were measured under an 18,000 pound rear axle load. Deflections reported in this paper are those taken between the tires of both the rear dual wheels of the truck. In taking the measurements, the truck, initially 10 feet away, was backed to the point of measurement so that its rear axle passed approximately 3 inches beyond the point, and then it was moved forward. In this manner, the rear wheels came no closer than 7.5 feet to the reference feet of the Benkelman Beam. In only four out of several hundred tests did a dial reading of other than zero result when the truck was 7.0 or more feet away from the probe of the beam. It is therefore believed that significant movement of the reference feet did not occur.

Table 2 presents the combined 1959 and 1960 inner and outer wheel path data. A four-way classification analysis of variance was made to study the effects of soil type, surface thickness, crack frequency and lane type on the deflection data. Significance of a factor was determined by variance ratios or "F" tests at 0.05 and 0.01

Soil Type	Lane	Crack Frequency	Bituminous Pavement Thickness
A-1	Traffic Lane	Low Crack Frequency	5" +
			5" -
		High Crack Frequency	5" +
			5" -
	Passing Lane	Low Crack Frequency	5" +
			5" -
		High Crack Frequency	5" +
			5" -
A-2	etc.		
A-4	etc.		
A-6	etc		

Figure 2. Design of Experiment for Benkelman Beam Deflection Measurements

Soil Type		Total Deflection, 0.001 inch								
		A-1		A-2		A-4		A-6		
Lane		Traffic Passing		Traffic Passing		Traffic Passing		Traffic Passing		Totals
Low Crack Frequency	Bituminous Pavement + 5"	15	15	17	9	20	13	24	14	127
		18	18	17	18	32	17	32	22	174
		14	14	12	11	18	14	20	12	115
		16	16	15	15	20	18	25	18	143
										1200
High Crack Frequency	Bituminous Pavement - 5"	21	13	20	16	30	24	22	17	163
		20	13	19	19	30	36	21	21	179
		20	11	16	10	25	19	18	16	135
		20	14	19	20	24	26	19	22	164
High Crack Frequency	Bituminous Pavement ÷ 5"	11	12	17	11	26	10	18	13	118
		10	14	26	12	26	16	19	30	153
		13	15	15	13	20	10	14	17	117
		12	12	22	18	23	22	19	17	145
										1144
High Crack Frequency	Bituminous Pavement - 5"	14	16	18	12	24	20	34	15	153
		15	11	18	13	24	22	34	17	154
		15	13	17	10	25	18	34	14	146
		15	13	17	8	24	24	34	23	158
Totals		249	220	285	215	391	309	387	288	2344
		469		500		700		675		

levels. For the effect of soil type on deflection, the Tukey method for determining a studentized range allowance for a set of means was applied (1).

Table 3 summarizes the results of the analysis of variance of the data presented in Table 2.

The statistical analysis shows that soil type, lane, and bituminous pavement thickness have an effect on the deflection data. Deflections on the traffic lane were higher than those on the passing lane and those on thick pavement surfaces were lower than those on thin pavement surfaces. Deflections were shown not to be related to crack frequency.

The Tukey analysis showed that real differences exist in deflection measurements made on coarse and fine-grained soils, but that differences between the A-1 and A-2 were not significant or the difference between the A-4 and A-6 soils were not significant. Deflections on A-1 and A-2 subgrades were lower than those on A-4 and A-6 subgrades.

The interactions shown to be significant in the analysis of variance were mostly due to a fairly small error mean square. This is not unusual when a large number of values, such as in this case, are used in the analysis.

Wheel Track Rutting Study

During the first week of August 1959, a transverse profilometer constructed by the Bureau of Materials and Tests of the Indiana State Highway Department was used to obtain the wheel track rutting measurements at the same 48 locations used in the surface deflection study. A rutting value was determined for each location by determining the maximum difference in elevation for that location in inches.

Table 4 presents a summary of the wheel track rutting data. Table 5 summarizes the results of the analysis of variance on these data. As with the deflection data,

Table 3. Four-Way Analysis of Variance Results for 1959 and 1960
Deflection Data, Inner and Outer Wheel Path

Source of Variance	F	F. _{.05}	F. _{.01}	Significance
Soil Type, A	36.40	2.71	4.03	.01 level
Lane, B	50.98	3.95	6.96	.01 level
Crack Frequency, C	2.00	3.95	6.96	NS
Surface Thickness, D	16.66	3.95	6.96	.01 level
Interactions: A x B	2.33	2.71	4.03	NS
A x C	2.92	2.71	4.03	.05 level
B x C	1.33	3.95	6.96	NS
A x B x C	2.17	2.71	4.03	NS
A x D	3.75	2.71	4.03	.05 level
B x D	1.08	3.95	6.96	NS
C x D	0	3.95	6.96	NS
B x C x D	5.00	3.95	6.96	.05 level
A x B x D	4.83	2.71	4.03	.01 level
A x C x D	7.00	2.71	4.03	.01 level
A x B x C x D	7.91	2.71	4.03	.01 level

Table 4. Summary of Inner and Outer Wheel Track Rutting Data

Soil Type Lane	Rutting, 0.01 inch					
	A-1		A-2		A-4	
	Traffic	Passing	Traffic	Passing	Traffic	Passing
Low Crack Frequency	13	11	27	22	36	33
	33	16	28	22	21	31
High Crack Frequency	40	11	44	12	44	24
	27	10	26	17	30	16
Totals	16	11	34	21	62	23
	12	12	33	23	38	24
Totals	28	19	41	31	61	22
	15	14	22	26	35	24
Totals	184	104	255	174	327	197
		288		429		524
					382	173
Totals						555
Totals						851
Totals						412
Totals						945
Totals						496
Totals						1796

Table 5. Four-Way Analysis of Variance Results for Inner and Outer
Wheel Tract Rutting Data

Source of Variance	F	F _{.05}	F _{.01}	Significance
Soil Type, A	7.83	2.92	4.51	.01 level
Lane, B	34.00	4.17	7.56	.01 level
Crack Frequency, C	1.20	4.17	7.56	NS
Surface Thickness, D	0.06	4.17	7.56	NS
Interactions: A x B	2.00	2.92	4.51	NS
A x C	0.84	2.92	4.51	NS
B x C	0.19	4.17	7.56	NS
A x B x C	1.75	2.92	4.51	NS
A x D	0.38	2.92	4.51	NS
B x D	1.95	4.17	7.56	NS
C x D	0.74	4.17	7.56	NS
B x C x D	0.76	4.17	7.56	NS
A x B x D	0.08	2.92	4.51	NS
A x C x D	0.30	2.92	4.51	NS
A x B x C x D	0.86	2.92	4.51	NS

the rutting data are affected by lane position and soil type but not by crack frequency. Higher rutting values were recorded in the traffic lane than in the passing lane. Unlike the deflection data, the rutting data were unaffected by pavement surface thickness.

Tukey's method was applied in the same manner as in the deflection data in order to determine which soil types might be significantly affecting the rutting data. Real differences exist in rutting measurements made on A-1 subgrades and the fine-grained subgrades. The A-2 soil group was so variable that it could not be established as performing differently from any of the three other soil groups. Thus, rutting measurements of pavement built on A-1 subgrades are significantly lower than those of pavements on A-4 and A-6 subgrades.

Relationship Between Deflection and Rutting

As can be seen by Figure 3, there is a good relationship between maximum deflection and wheel track rutting. The fitted line of Figure 3 was obtained by the method of least squares. It should be noted, however, that the points in this figure represent average values, and that the data for the A-4 soil are erratic.

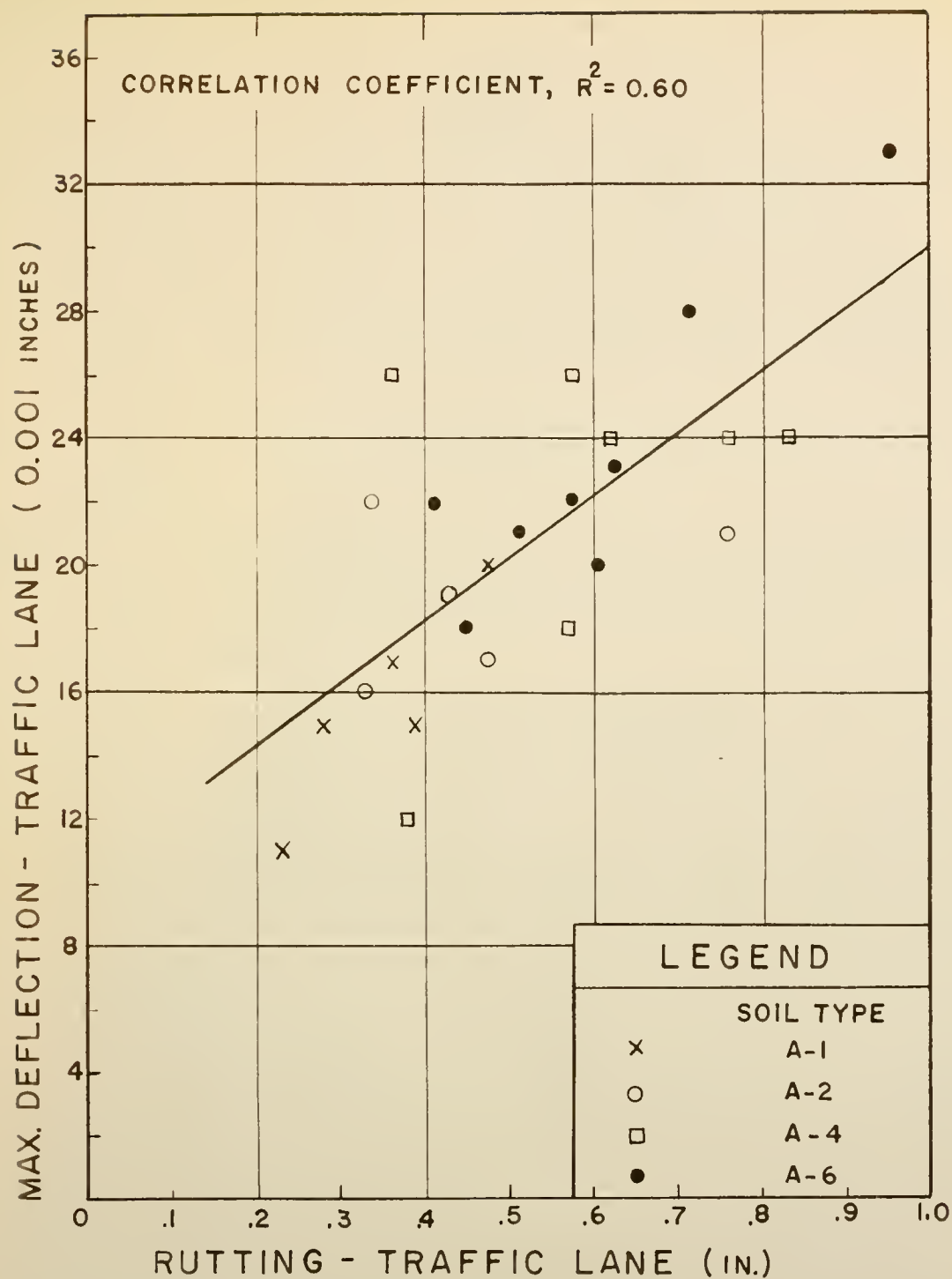


FIG. 3 MAXIMUM DEFLECTION vs RUTTING

Summary

Concerning the cracking study, the following summary statements are applicable:

1. Cracking was not shown to be related to subgrade type.
2. More cracking occurred in the traffic lane than in the passing lane, no doubt due to heavier, and greater traffic volumes on the traffic lane.
3. Bituminous pavement thickness was not shown to be related to cracking.

The following statements summarize the surface deflection and rutting results:

1. Subgrade type, lane, and pavement thickness affected the deflection data.
2. Subgrade type and lane affected the rutting data.
3. Crack frequency was not shown to be related to total deflection or to rutting.
4. A direct relationship existed between rutting and total deflection.

LAYERED SYSTEM DEFLECTION STUDY

Introduction

It is significant to note the previous study indicated that no correlation existed between cracking and surface deflection. Further, a correlation did exist between rutting and deflection and between rutting and soil type. The data suggest that surface deflection was directly related to soil type, fine-grained subgrades resulting in the highest deflection. Also rutting was influenced by soil type in the same manner. Thus it is indicated that the major portion of the rutting occurred in the subgrade itself. However, the probable cause of the longitudinal cracking was not apparent from the study.

The next step in the investigation concerned the study of deflection patterns within the component layers of the pavement. It was hypothesized that if the deflection of each pavement layer was determined at all of the sites previously tested, a relationship between these deflection data and pavement cracking could be established. Through the use of the stress distribution theory, relative moduli values, E , could be derived from the deflection data. The term relative modulus is used instead of elastic modulus, since the pavement structure is imperfectly elastic. It should be noted that it was necessary to assume that materials under the cracked pavement underwent the same relative changes, with time, as the materials under the pavement that did not crack.

A scheme was devised in which the Benkelman beam was adapted to measure the vertical movement of steel rods referenced at the top of the different layers of the pavement system. This scheme, which is diagrammed in Figure 4, utilized 4-inch

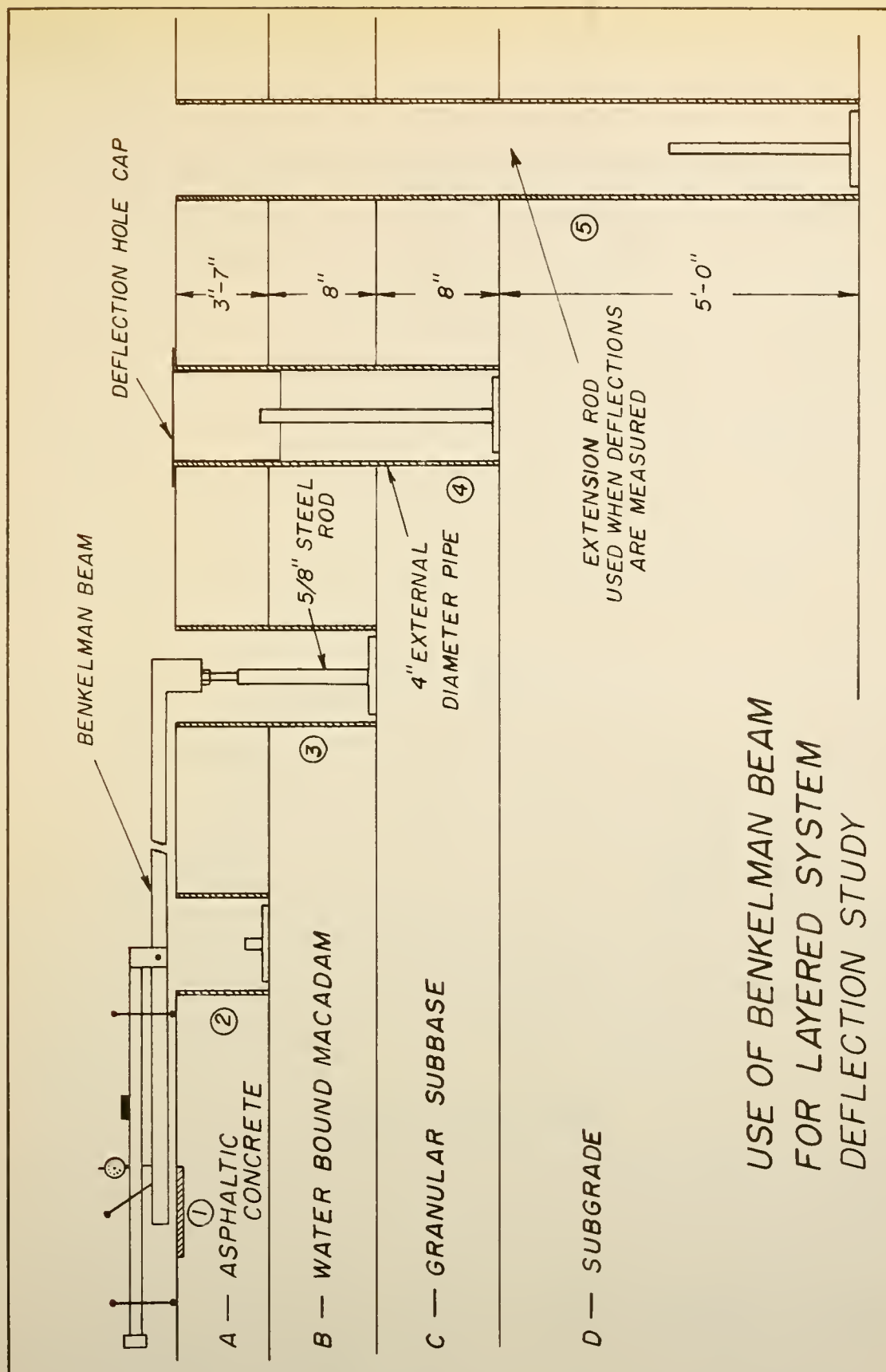


FIG. 4

diameter holes, with pipe casing and steel reference rods of varying lengths.

It was considered impractical to install a complete set of reference rods at all 32 sites of the previously discussed experiment; therefore, only eight sites were selected. The tests were made at eight locations in the passing lane where the surface was approximately 5 inches thick. Because of the importance of soil type, and because crack frequency was the factor for which an existing relationship was sought, these two factors were retained in the experiment. The eight sites selected for this study conform to the pattern of variables illustrated in Figure 5. All of the field work was completed during the months of September 1960 and April 1961.

Test Procedures

Four different truck loadings were used:

- | | | |
|---|----|----------------|
| 1. 6,000 pounds, right rear dual wheels | .. | September 1960 |
| 2. 11,250 pounds, " " " " | . | September 1960 |
| 3. 13,390 pounds, " " " " | . | September 1960 |
| 4. 12,000 pounds " " " " | . | April 1961 |

The testing procedures were essentially the same as used for the surface deflection study; that is, the truck was backed from a distance 10 feet from the deflection point to a position over the point and then forward again.

Relative Moduli Values

Relative moduli values were obtained for the subgrade, subbase, and base courses for six of the eight locations. These are relative values only, since they are based upon Boussinesq stress distribution and upon the deflection measurements made through holes cased with pipe. Relative moduli offer a means of comparing the stress-strain properties of one layer to another.

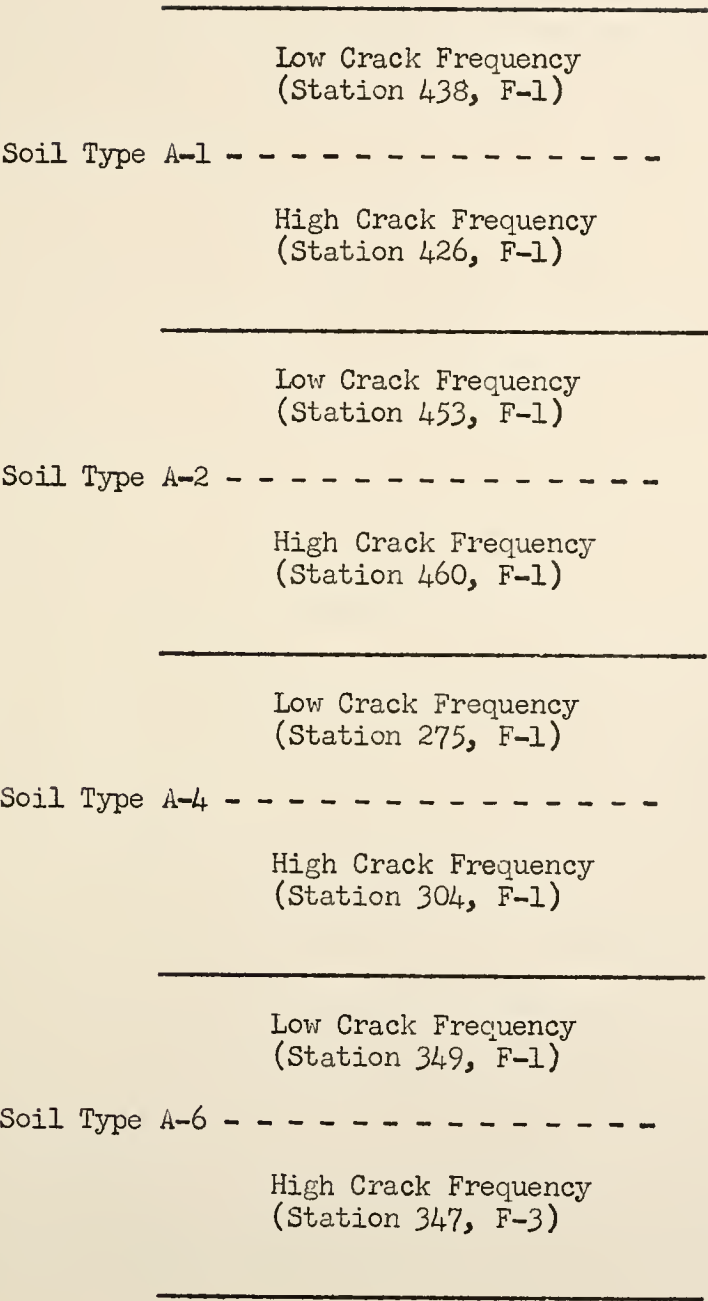


Figure 5. Design of Experiment for Layered System Deflection Study. All measurements were made in the inner wheel path of the passing lane where the bituminous pavement was approximately 5 inches thick.

It is recognized that in calculating these relative moduli values, application of elastic theory is made to a problem involving the stress-displacement properties of an imperfectly elastic material. However, since the deflections dealt with in this study are not of the permanent type, but are primarily recoverable, the application of elastic theory to this problem appears justified.

Additional justification for use of the theoretical stress distribution computation to this problem is based on the fact that although numerical values of stress vary from the calculated values, the measured stress-depth curves are shaped similar to calculated curves (2, 3). Also changes in stress with depth are used in the moduli computations. Thus, since the measured and calculated curves have the same shape, the amount of error which is introduced into the computation is minimized. Figure 6 illustrates the comparison of curves obtained by test to calculated curves.

Considering the magnitude of loads received by the average highway, the use of elastic theory in the analysis of pavement structures can be quite valuable, especially after the highway has been subjected to several years of traffic. During the past few years, several research efforts have produced results which point toward the concept that under any single application of a moving wheel load on a pavement surface, nearly elastic behavior exists (4). Deformation of the subgrades on the WASHO Road Test was elastic-like in that practically equal and recoverable deflections were produced by several thousand loads following the conditioning period by initial loads (5).

The equation used to compute moduli values was as follows:

$$S = \frac{Pa}{E} F$$

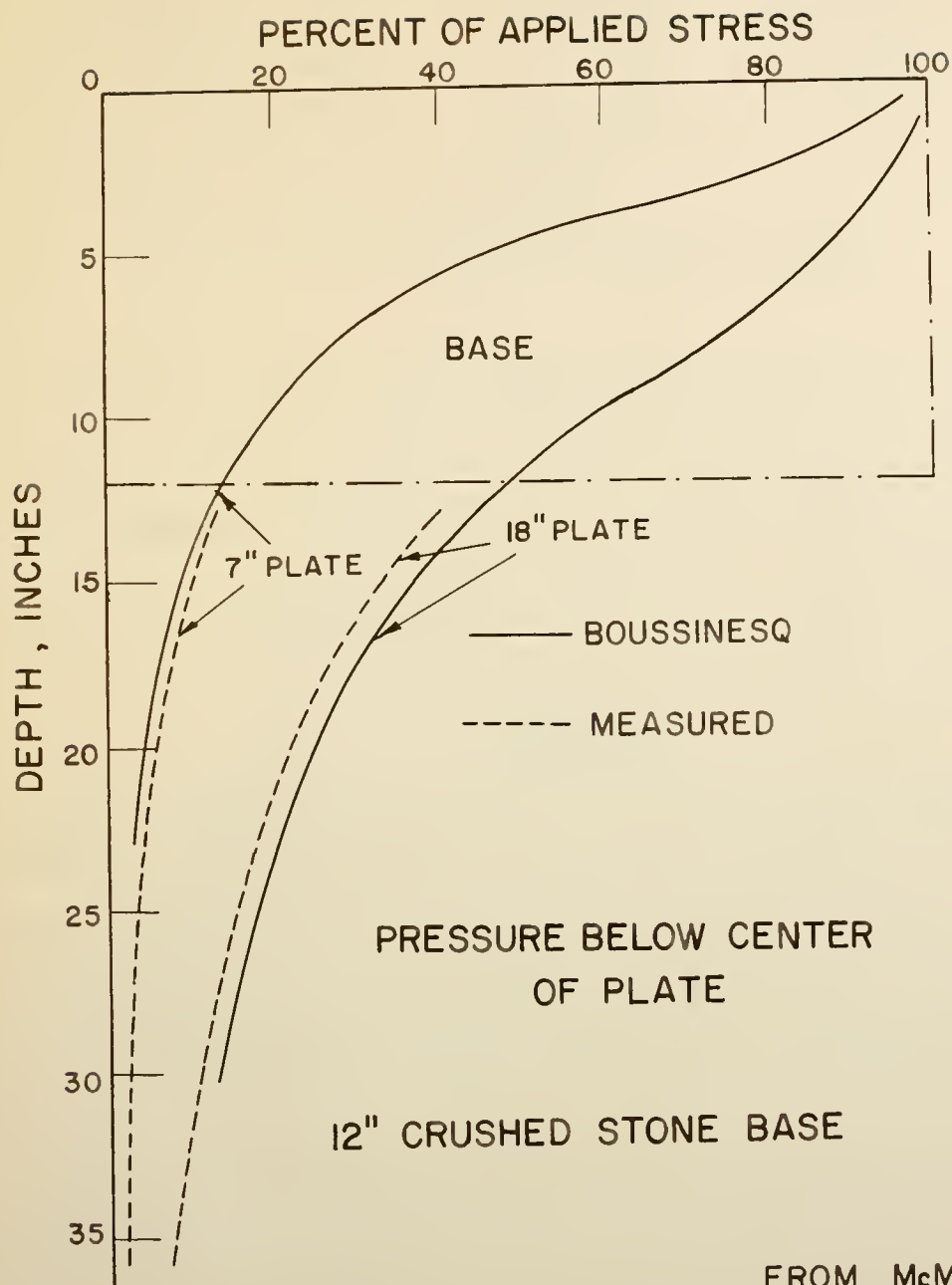


FIG. 6

The moduli of the bituminous courses were not determined from the deflection measurements because of the insensitivity of the Benkelman Beam. In many cases no deflection was measured within the bituminous pavement; this resulted in calculated moduli equal to infinity.

Table 6. Subgrade Modulus, E_2 , in 1,000 psi

Station	Dual Wheel Load, (pounds)			Soil Type	Crack Frequency
	6,000	11,250	13,390		
347	32.8	20.5	19.1	A-6	High
249	26.4	27.5	19.0	A-6	Low
304	26.4	27.4	23.8	A-4	High
275	43.4	30.7	31.9	A-4	Low
460	32.8	32.5	31.9	A-2	High
453	21.7	27.4	31.9	A-2	Low
426	21.7	40.6	35.8	A-1	High
438	26.4	40.6	35.8	A-1	Low

Table 7. Results of Two-Way Analysis of Variance
of Subgrade Moduli Values

Source of Variance	F	F _{.1}	F _{.25}	Significance
Soil Type, A	2.37	2.49	1.50	.25 level
Crack Frequency, B	0.33	3.07	1.42	NS
Interaction: A x B	1.48	2.49	1.50	.25 level

Table 8. Subbase Modulus, E_2 , in 1,000 psi

Station*	Dual Wheel Load, (pounds)			Crack Frequency	Soil Type
	6,000	11,250	13,390		
249	13.4	12.8	26.8	Low	A-6
304	13.4	12.8	13.2	High	A-4
275	10.8	14.9	13.4	Low	A-4
460	17.7	13.9	17.7	High	A-2
426	10.8	12.8	13.4	High	A-1
438	26.1	30.8	35.4	Low	A-1

* Station 347 and 453 had to be eliminated from this analysis because of defective hole installation referenced on top of subbase.

Table 9. Results of Two-Way Analysis of Variance of Subbase Moduli Values

Source of Variance	F	F _{.1}	F _{.25}	Significance
Wheel Load, C	.70	2.81	1.53	NS
Crack Frequency, B	3.76	3.18	1.46	.1 level
Interaction, B x C	.43	2.81	1.53	NS

Table 10. Base Course Modulus, E_1 , in 1,000 psi

Station*	Dual Wheel Load, (pounds)			Crack Frequency	Soil Type
	6,000	11,250	13,390		
249	49.7	101.2	132.0	Low	A-6
304	49.7	101.0	73.2	High	A-4
275	55.2	50.6	28.1	Low	A-4
460	27.6	65.0	47.2	High	A-2
426	55.2	50.6	69.4	High	A-1
438	17.8	24.0	47.2	Low	A-1

* Station 347 and 453 had to be eliminated from this analysis because of defective hole installation referenced on top of subbase.

Table 11. Results of Two-Way Analysis of Variance of Base Course Moduli Values

Source of Variance	F	$F_{.25}$	Significance
Wheel Load, C	1.07	1.56	NS
Crack Frequency, B	0.06	1.46	NS
Interaction: B x C	0.14	1.56	NS

Table 12. Comparison of Fall and Spring Layer Deflections, 0.001 inches,
12,000 pound dual wheel load or 24,000 pound axle load

Station	Subgrade		Subbase		Base		Soil Type	Crack Frequency
	Fall	Spring	Fall	Spring	Fall	Spring		
347	3.7	17.8	2.8	0.9	2.8	14.5	A-6	High
249	4.6	11.1	3.7	9.2	1.0	2.1	A-6	Low
304	4.6	6.3	3.7	12.8	1.0	3.2	A-4	High
275	2.8	7.6	4.6	8.8	0.9	7.4	A-4	Low
460	3.7	8.4	2.8	6.4	1.8	2.9	A-2	High
453	5.6	8.5	0.0	3.7	4.6	4.5	A-2	Low
426	5.6	9.3	4.6	5.0	0.0	4.2	A-1	High
438	4.6	9.3	1.9	3.6	2.8	3.8	A-1	Low

Summary

Figures 7 through 12 summarize the relative modulus values obtained from the fall deflection measurements.

No significant relationship was shown to exist between subgrade modulus values and crack frequency. A significant relationship between crack frequency and subbase moduli was established (at the 0.1 level). It was shown that with ten percent chance of error, low crack frequency areas have higher subbase modulus values than high crack frequency areas. There appeared to be no relationship between crack frequency and base course moduli. In general, the results indicated that the base course had a higher relative modulus than the subgrade, and the subgrade somewhat higher than the subbase.

The springtime data were obtained only under a 12,000 pound dual wheel. It is to be seen in Table 12 that the macadam base course showed greater relative deflections in the spring than in the fall. The increase in deflection of the base at locations of high frequency was approximately 230 percent as contrasted to the base at low crack frequency locations, 59 percent. The springtime deflections for all the pavement layers were greater than the fall values, the subgrade and base course showing the largest increases. The fall measurements indicated that the subbase contributed significantly to the total deflection, whereas the spring measurements indicated that the base course and subgrade were more significant.

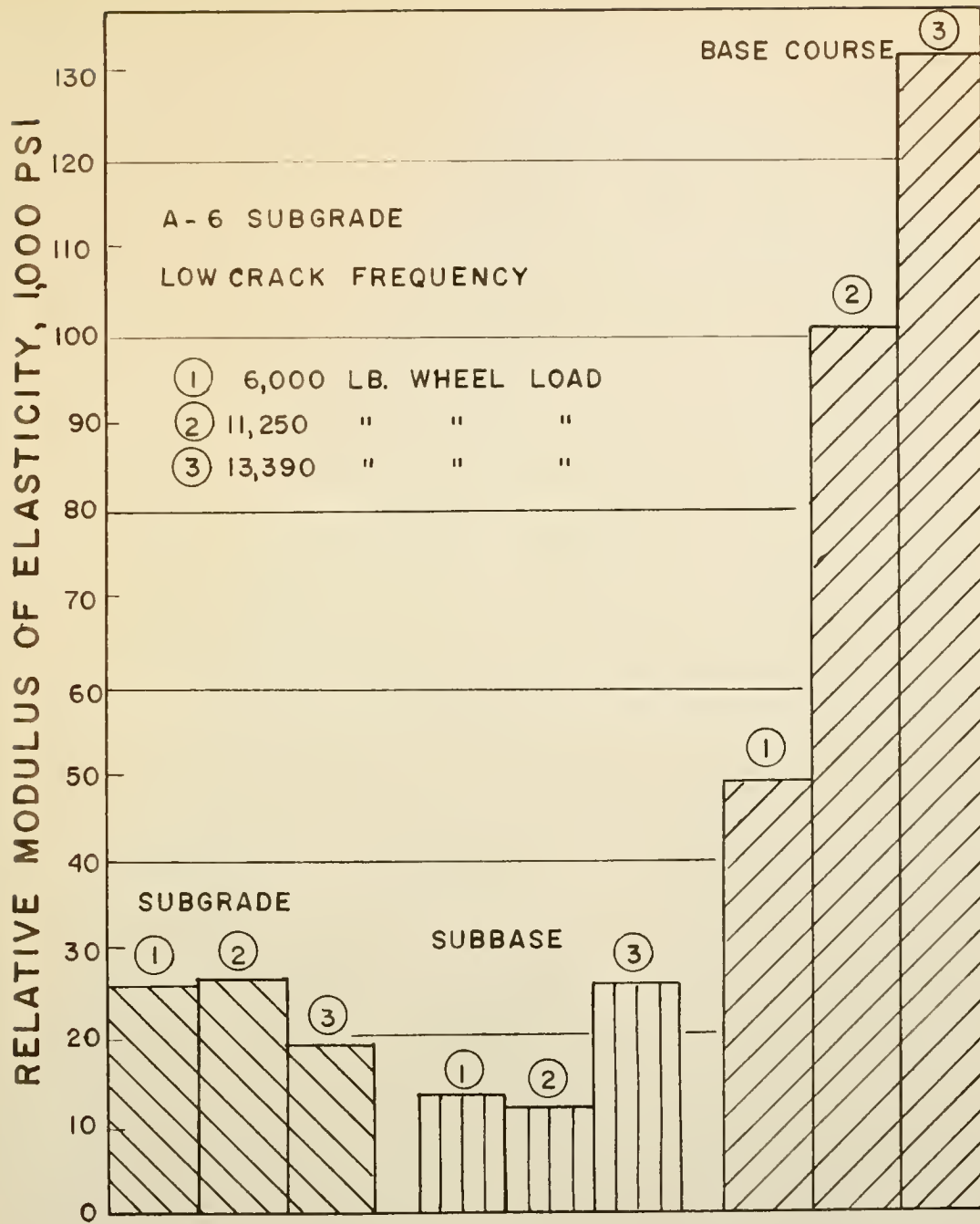


FIG. 7 RELATIVE MODULUS OF
PAVEMENT LAYERS, STATION 249

BASED ON FALL MEASUREMENTS

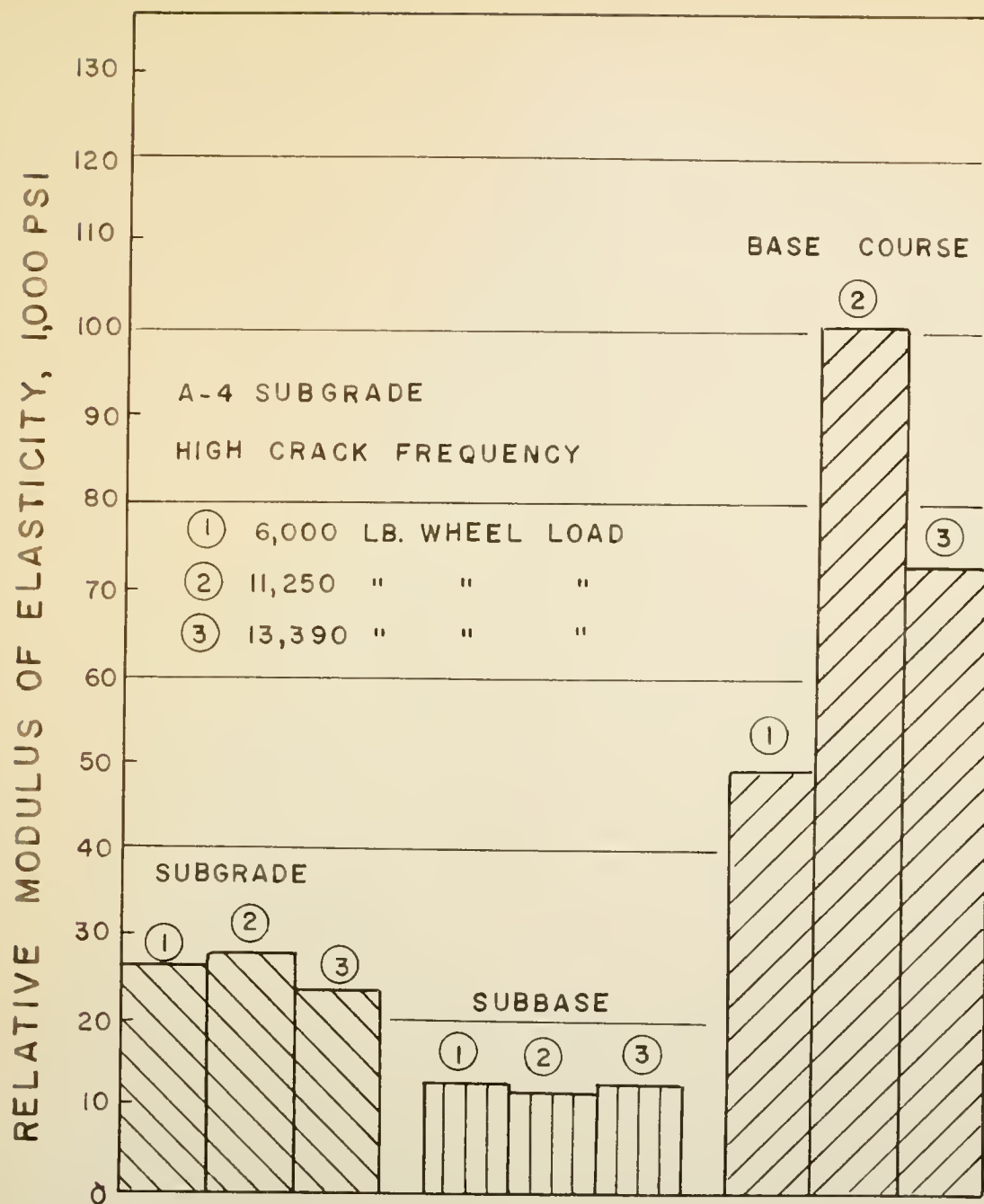


FIG. 8 RELATIVE MODULUS OF
PAVEMENT LAYERS, STATION 304

BASED ON FALL MEASUREMENTS

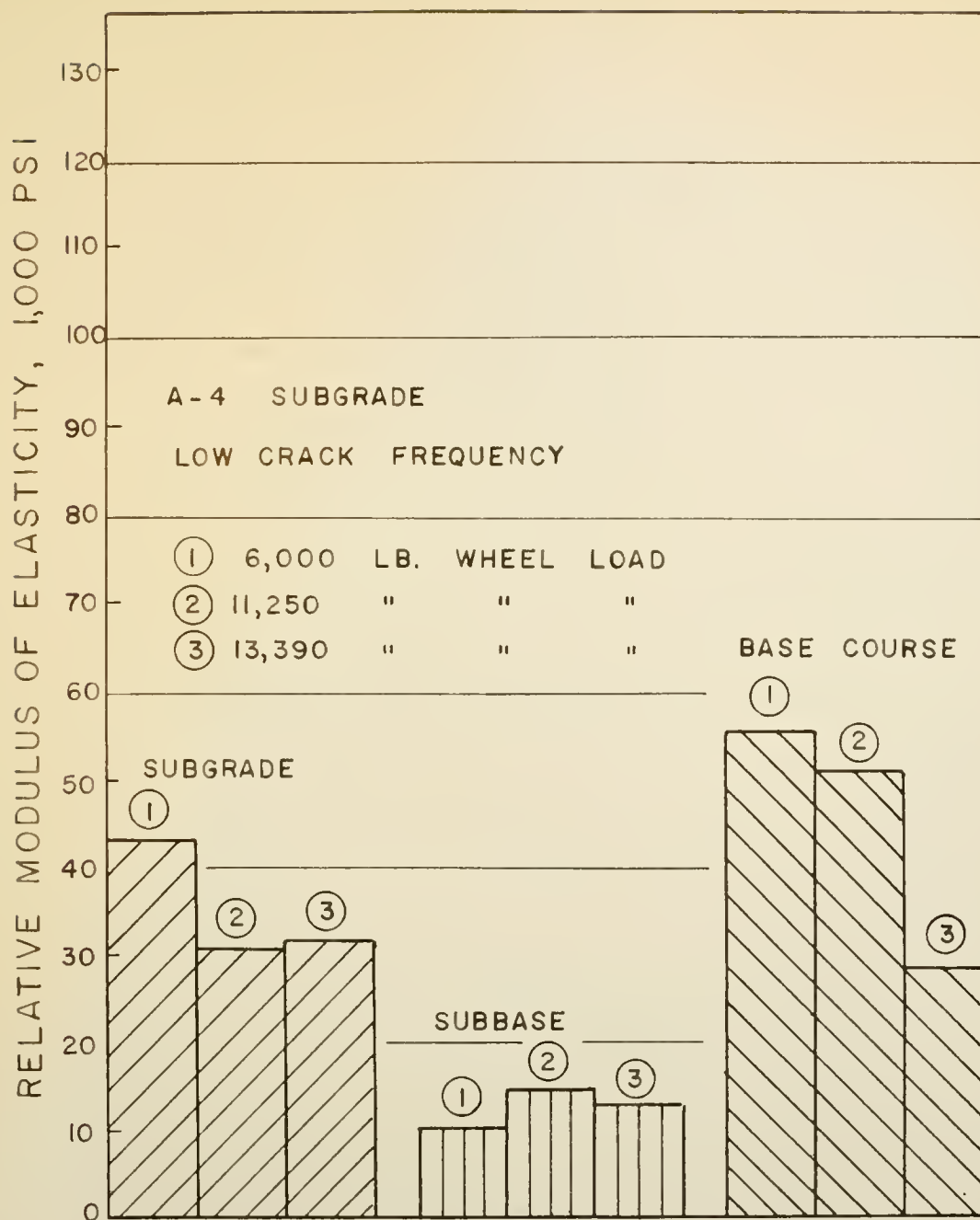


FIG. 9 RELATIVE MODULUS OF
PAVEMENT LAYERS, STATION 275

BASED ON FALL MEASUREMENTS

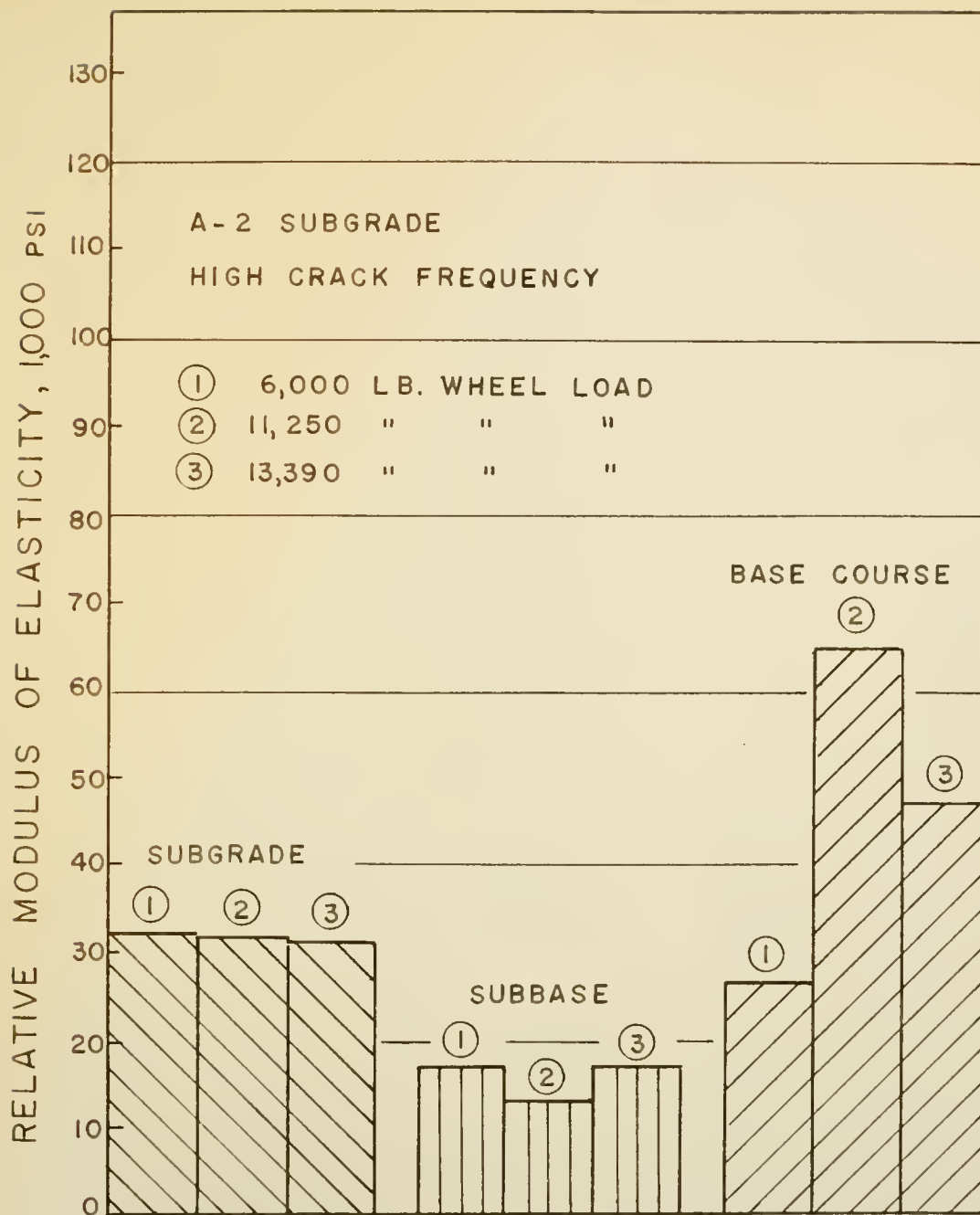


FIG. 10 RELATIVE MODULUS OF
PAVEMENT LAYERS, STATION 460
BASED ON FALL MEASUREMENTS

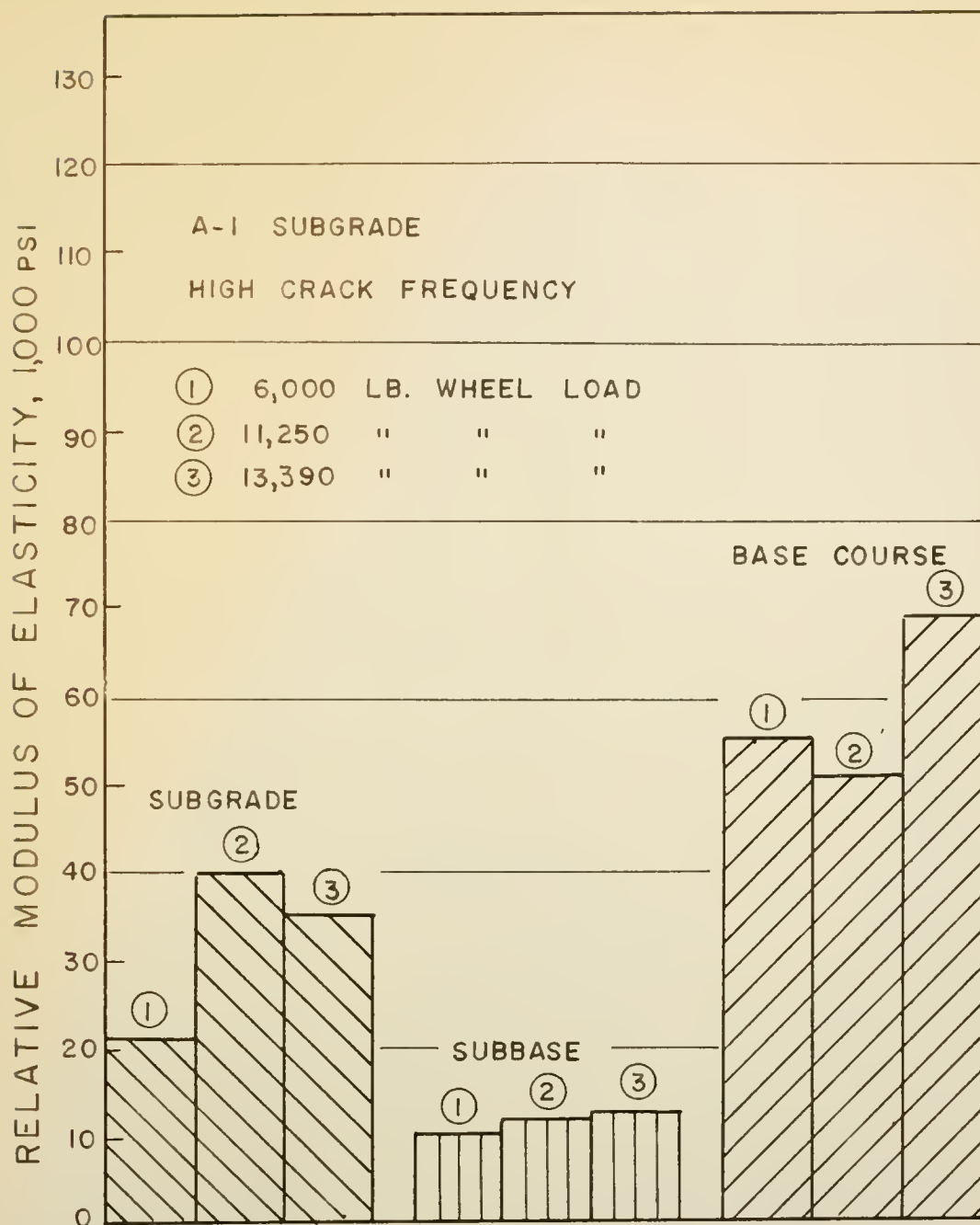


FIG. II RELATIVE MODULUS OF
PAVEMENT LAYERS, STATION 426

BASED ON FALL MEASUREMENTS

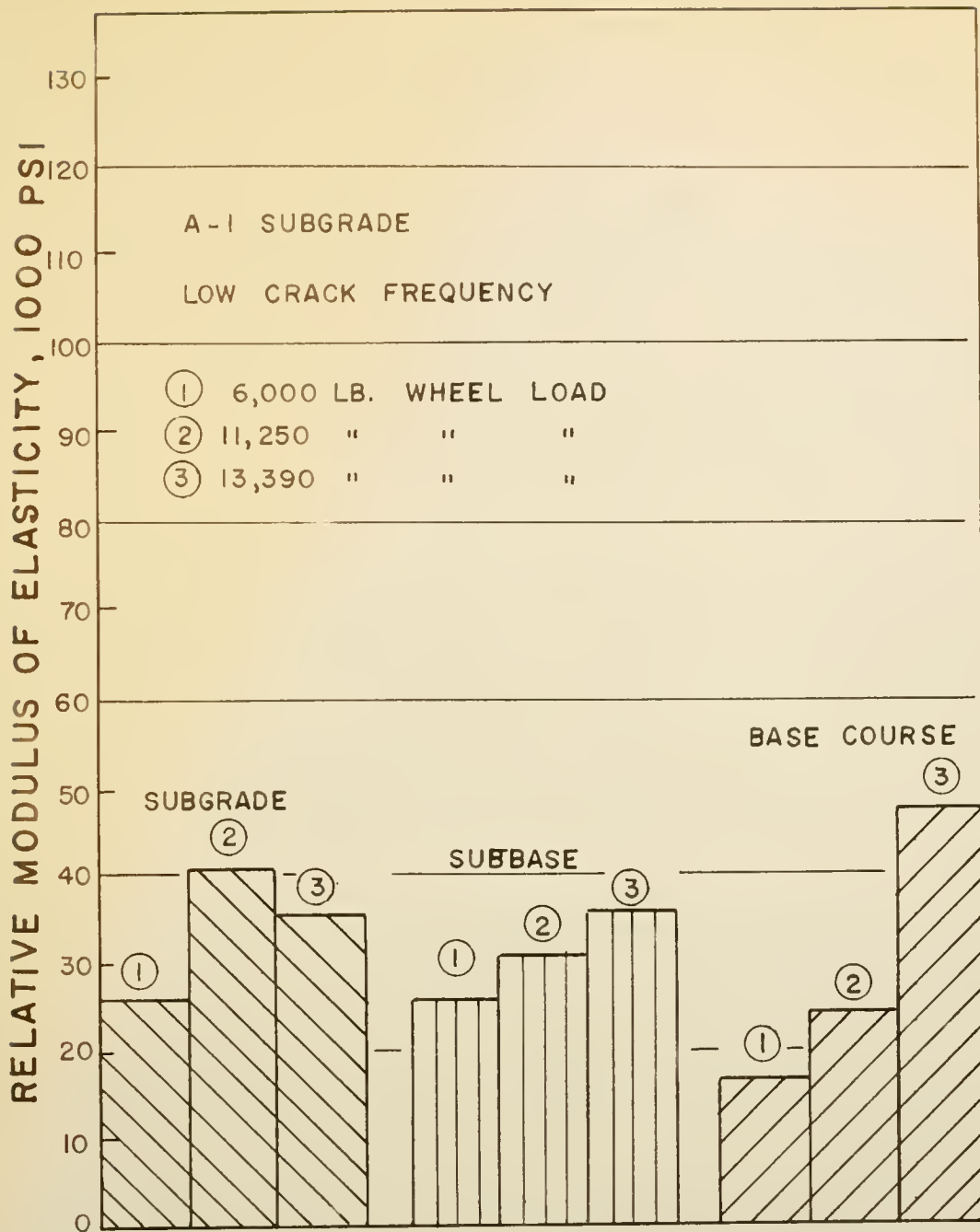


FIG. 12 RELATIVE MODULUS OF
PAVEMENT LAYERS, STATION 438
BASED ON FALL MEASUREMENTS

DISCUSSION

Deflection, Rutting and Cracking

As shown in Table 1 pavements built over each of the four subgrade types showed on the average more than 100 linear feet of cracks per station. Since the subgrades ranged from granular materials (A-1-a classification) to silty clay (A-6 classification), it is concluded that low subgrade support was not primarily responsible for the pavement cracking.

More cracks have occurred in the traffic lane than in the passing lane suggesting a relationship between cracking and traffic intensity. The cracking however has progressed since first noticed in 1957 to the point where some sections of passing lane over all the subgrade types are beginning to show as many cracks as sections of the traffic lane; observation seems to indicate that the cracking is continuing at an increasing rate.

The absence of a significant relationship between surface deflection and crack frequency is perhaps the most important finding of the study. In the statistical analysis, the hypothesis was made that no relationship existed between crack frequency and deflection. This hypothesis could not be rejected even at the 0.01 or 0.05 level (Table 2).

Surface deflection, which is the sum of the deformations that occur in all the layers of the pavement structure and the subgrade, is dependent upon many factors. Gross load, tire pressures, moisture content of the subgrade, and base, density of all the pavement components, volume change characteristics, and the season of the year, are some of the important factors that affect surface deflection.

For example, natural variation in moisture contents from one location to another could cause different deflections, regardless of the cracking that had occurred in the pavement surface.

Another important result of this study is the relationship found between rutting and total deflection. Wheel track rutting reflects the permanent changes in elevation of the pavement layers and subgrade. In this case subgrade type was shown to be a statistically significant factor affecting the amount of rutting. The largest rutting values were associated with the fine-grained subgrades. A good correlation was established between surface deflection and rutting.

Layered System Deflections

The deflection of a component layer of the pavement structure depends upon the physical properties of the layer in question and upon the stresses imposed upon the layer. Hence, it becomes necessary in the analysis of layer deflections to take into account the stress distribution through the pavement. Use was made of the Boussinesq solution in this analysis to calculate a relative modulus for the pavement layers. The limitations of this analysis should be recognized (i.e. homogeneity, elasticity, tire imprint shape, etc.).

Stress computations for the two- and three-layer problem have been proposed by Burmister (12, 13) and others. However, use was made of the homogeneous problem in this study since relative stresses at offset distance from the centerline of each tire of the dual wheel could readily be computed.

Observation of the deflection data in Table 12 and the modulus computations immediately indicate the interesting point that the deflection in the subbase was disproportionately larger in many cases than the deflection in the subgrade.

The subbase as used in this test pavement has two primary functions. First, it is a drainage layer which permits escape of water through the shoulders. Second, it is a transitional layer between the subgrade and base course. To fulfill this second purpose, the subbase ideally must not deform as much, for the same imposed stresses, as the subgrade.

The subbase in this road consisted of a relatively clean, cohesionless sand. This satisfied the drainage criterion mentioned above; however, there was difficulty encountered in supporting construction traffic during construction due to the non-cohesive nature of the material.

The fact that the subbase moduli were found to be related statistically to crack frequency is considered to be important. Even though the relationship was statistically significant only at the 0.1 level, this information, coupled with the lack of correlation between cracking and the other factors (as evidenced by very low F ratios in the analysis of variance concerning total deflection, subgrade modulus, and base course modulus), indicates that high deformation in the subbase regardless of seasons contributed to the occurrence of surface cracks. However, the spring measurements showed a large increase in deflections on the water bound macadam base and sizeable increases in the A-6 subgrades and significant increases in the other subgrade types.

Ductility and Penetration Tests

When the deflection holes were drilled in the test pavement, cores of the bituminous layers were removed. Penetration and ductility tests were made on asphalt extracted from these cores. The results of these tests are presented in Table 13.

It should be noted that the penetration and ductility values are the lowest for the surface course and the highest for the base course due undoubtedly to oxidation of the upper layer. Both the penetration and ductility values are rather low, particularly for the surface. This reflects conditions of the surface conducive to pavement cracking.

Evaluation of Test Pavement

On the basis of the findings from the crack survey, surface deflection, rutting studies, and the layered system deflection analysis, it is believed that regardless of the cause of initial cracking greater than normal deflection in the subbase is an important factor in the progression of cracking that is occurring in the test pavement. This is based on the observation that areas of high crack frequency were associated statistically with the low values of subbase modulus and vice-versa (see Table 8) and crack frequency was not found to be associated with type of subgrade nor with the relative modulus values of either the subgrade or base.

Cracking in a pavement surface can be caused by many factors including 1) shear stresses, 2) tensile stresses induced by volume changes in any of the pavement components, 3) tensile stresses caused by deflection of the pavement structure, and 4) bending stresses due to repeated loads which, when few in number are not destructive, but when repeated in numbers commensurate with high traffic volumes can be detrimental.

Table 13. Average Ductility, cms, and Penetration, .1mm, Core Layer

Station	Crack Frequency	Core Component					
		Surface		Binder		Base	
		Pene.	Duct.	Pene.	Duct.	Pene.	Duct.
347	High	29	8	39	22	42	34
249	Low	27	7	30	12	35	22
304	High	28	7	35	29	41	39
275	Low	28	6	34	14	41	30
460	High	33	12	40	24	41	36
453	Low	29	7	29	9	32	14
426	High	22	5	28	10	31	19
438	Low	22	6	28	13	33	17

Shear stresses in the pavement surface can be assumed to be a major factor contributing to cracking where rutting, upheaval outside the loaded area and other permanent differential settlements are evident. In the case of this road, rutting and cracking were found to be unrelated (Table 5). The cracks that did occur were quite smooth and lacked the evidence of a shear type of failure.

Effectiveness of Evaluation Methods

The procedures used in this study provided a basis upon which to develop answers to the question of what was causing the cracking and rutting of the test pavement. However, the problem is of such complexity as to make impossible complete explanations of all behavior of the pavement structure. For example, if the subbase course is partly responsible for the cracking, why do not the cracks resemble map-type cracking more than they do? Also, if the primary cause is shrinkage why are there so few transverse cracks? Most of the initial cracks were essentially longitudinal with some of the latter cracks tending to be diagonal in direction. A reason for the direction of crack formation could not be obtained from any of the data obtained in this study and at this point can only be presented as conjecture. Since one would normally expect shrinkage cracks to be transverse in direction as well as longitudinal and fatigue cracks to be "map cracking" it appears reasonable to assume a combination of causes. It is pertinent to note that since the heaviest

loads are on tandem axles, shorter radii of curvature are produced in the transverse direction (across the dual wheels) than in the longitudinal direction. These shorter radii would cause transverse bending stresses greater than longitudinal stresses, thus encouraging longitudinal cracks.

By showing that there was no relationship between total deflection and crack frequency, greater emphasis is placed on the need of measuring deflections in each pavement layer.

Deflection Measurement Procedure

The method of making the surface deflection measurements with the Benkelman Beam differs from that used by many engineers. It is common practice to place the probe of the Benkelman beam between the dual wheels at a distance of 4.5 feet under the truck. The truck then pulls forward and initial and maximum dial readings are recorded. This puts the dual wheels initially about 3 feet from the reference feet of the beam. Data obtained during the surface deflection study of this report indicate that in most instances movement of the reference feet would have occurred if this procedure had been used. The procedure used in this study wherein the dual wheel comes no closer to the feet than 7.5 feet is recommended.

SUMMARY OF CONCLUSIONS AND RESULTS

Concerning the study of the pavement reported in this paper the following conclusions are drawn:

1. Total deflections, by themselves, were not effective in determining the entire cause of the distress. Surface deflections were correlated with rutting but no correlation was found between cracking and surface deflection.
2. Deflection measurements of the individual layers of a flexible pavement structure were useful in showing the relationship between the pavement cracking and properties of each pavement layer.
3. Determination of relative modulus values were used satisfactorily in an evaluation of the relationship of deflection of one layer to another.
4. The procedure of backing the truck so that the dual wheel just passes over the probe end of the Benkelman beam was found to be preferable to the procedure where the truck begins only three feet from the reference feet of the beam.

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